# CSCI-351 Data communication and Networks

### Lecture 6: Data Link (The Etherknot Notwork)

The slide is built with the help of Prof. Alan Mislove, Christo Wilson, and David Choffnes's class

# Data Link Layer

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#### Function:

- Send blocks of data (frames) between physical devices
- Regulate access to the physical media
- Key challenge:
  - How to delineate frames?
  - How to detect errors?
  - How to perform media access control (MAC)?
  - How to recover from and avoid collisions?

### <sup>3</sup> Outline

# Framing

- Error Checking and Reliability
- Media Access Control
  - 802.3 Ethernet
  - 802.11 Wifi

# Framing

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- Physical layer determines how bits are encoded
- Next step, how to encode blocks of data
  - Packet switched networks
  - Each packet includes routing information
  - Data boundaries must be known so headers can be read
- Types of framing
  - Byte oriented protocols
  - Bit oriented protocols
  - Clock based protocols

# Byte Oriented: Sentinel Approach



- Add START and END sentinels to the data
- Problem: what if END appears in the data?
  - Add a special DLE (Data Link Escape) character before END
  - What if DLE appears in the data? Add DLE before it.
  - Similar to escape sequences in C
    - printf("You must \"escape\" quotes in strings");
    - printf("You must \\escape\\ forward slashes as well");
- Used by Point-to-Point protocol, e.g. modem, DSL, cellular

# Byte Oriented: Byte Counting

	132
132	Data

- Sender: insert length of the data in bytes at the beginning of each frame
- Receiver: extract the length and read that many bytes

# Bit Oriented: Bit Stuffing

- Add sentinels to the start and end of data
  - Both sentinels are the same
  - Example: 01111110 in High-level Data Link Protocol (HDLC)
- Sender: insert a 0 after each 11111 in data
  Known as "bit stuffing"
- Receiver: after seeing 11111 in the data...
  - □  $111110 \rightarrow$  remove the 0 (it was stuffed)
  - $\square 111111 \rightarrow \text{look at one more bit}$ 
    - 1111110  $\rightarrow$  end of frame
    - 1111111 → error! Discard the frame
- Disadvantage: 20% overhead at worst

# **Clock-based Framing: SONET**

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- Synchronous Optical Network Transmission over very fast optical links STS-n, e.g. STS-1: 51.84 Mbps, STS-768: 36.7 Gbps STS-1 frames based on fixed sized frames 9\*90 = 810 bytes 90 Columns Physical layer details Special start Blis are encoded using NRZ Payload is XORed with a special 127-bit pattern to avoid **d A** long sequences of Payload 0

9 Outline

- Framing
- Error Checking and Reliability
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# **Dealing with Noise**

- The physical world is inherently noisy
  - Interference from electrical cables
  - Cross-talk from radio transmissions, microwave ovens
  - Solar storms
- How to detect bit-errors in transmissions?
- How to recover from errors?

## Naïve Error Detection

- Idea: send two copies of each frame
  - if (memcmp(frame1, frame2) != 0) { OH NOES, AN ERROR! }
- Why is this a bad idea?
  - Extremely high overhead
  - Poor protection against errors
    - Twice the data means twice the chance for bit errors

## Parity Bits

- Idea: add extra bits to keep the number of 1s even
  Example: 7-bit ASCII characters + 1 parity bit
- Detects 1-bit errors and some 2-bit errors
- Not reliable against bursty errors

## **Two Dimensional Parity**

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Can detect all 1-, 2-, and 3-bit errors, some 4-bit errors
 14% overhead

# **Two Dimensional Parity Examples**



# Checksums

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Idea:

Add up the bytes in the data

Include the sum in the frame



- Use ones-complement arithmetic
- Lower overhead than parity: 16 bits per frame
- But, not resilient to errors
  Why?
- Used in UPP, 729, and 10001 = 10010010

# Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Uses field theory to compute a semi-unique value for a given message
- Much better performance than previous approaches
  Fixed size overhead per frame (usually 32-bits)
  Quick to implement in hardware
  Only 1 in 2<sup>32</sup> chance of missing an error with 32-bit CRC
  Details are in the back (or Milkingelia)
- Details are in the book/on Wikipedia

# What About Reliability?

- How does a sender know that a frame was received?
  What if it has errors?
  - What if it never arrives at all?



# Stop and Wait

- Simplest form of reliability
- Example: Bluetooth
- Problems?
  - Utilization
  - Can only have one frame in flight at any time
- 10Gbps link and 10ms delay
  Need 100 Mbit to fill the pipe
  Assume packets are 1500B
  1500B\*8bit/(2\*10ms) = 600Kbps
  Utilization is 0.006%



# Sliding Window

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- Allow multiple outstanding, un-ACKed frames
- Number of un-ACKed frames is called the window



Made famous by TCP
 We'll look at this in more detail later

#### Should We Error Check in the Data Link?

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- Recall the End-to-End Argument
- Cons:
  - Error free transmission cannot be guaranteed
  - Not all applications want this functionality
  - Error checking adds CPU and packet size overhead
  - Error recovery requires buffering

Pros:

- Potentially better performance than app-level error checking
- Data link error checking in practice
  - Most useful over lossy links
  - Wifi, cellular, satellite

### <sup>21</sup> Outline

# Framing

- Error Checking and Reliability
- Media Access Control
  - 802.3 Ethernet
  - □ 802.11 Wifi

# What is Media Access?

- Ethernet and Wifi are both multi-access technologies
  Broadcast medium, shared by many hosts
  - Simultaneous transmissions cause collisions
    - This destroys the data
- Media Access Control (MAC) protocols are required
  - Rules on how to share the medium
  - Strategies for detecting, avoiding, and recovering from collisions

# Strategies for Media Access

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#### Channel partitioning

- Divide the resource into small pieces
- Allocate each piece to one host
- Example: Time Division Multi-Access (TDMA) cellular
- Example: Frequency Division Multi-Access (FDMA) cellular

#### Taking turns

- Tightly coordinate shared access to avoid collisions
- Example: Token ring networks

#### Contention

- Allow collisions, but use strategies to recover
- Examples: Ethernet, Wifi

# **Contention MAC Goals**

- Share the medium
  - Two hosts sending at the same time collide, thus causing interference
  - If no host sends, channel is idle
  - Thus, want one user sending at any given time
- High utilization
  - TDMA is low utilization
  - Just like a circuit switched network
- Simple, distributed algorithm
  - Multiple hosts that cannot directly coordinate
  - No fancy (complicated) token-passing schemes

## **Contention Protocol Evolution**

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- □ ALOHA
  - Developed in the 70's for packet radio networks

#### Slotted ALOHA

- Start transmissions only at fixed time slots
- Significantly fewer collisions than ALOHA
- Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)
  Start transmission only if the channel is idle
- CSMA / Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)
  - Stop ongoing transmission if collision is detected

# ALOHA

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Topology: radio broadcast with multiple stations



## Tradeoffs vs. TDMA



# Slotted ALOHA



## 802.3 Ethernet



- Preamble is 7 bytes of 10101010. Why?
- Start Frame (SF) is 10101011
- Source and destination are MAC addresses
  - **E**.g. 00:45:A5:F3:25:0C
  - Broadcast: FF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF
- Minimum packet length of 64 bytes, hence the pad

## **Broadcast Ethernet**

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Originally, Ethernet was a broadcast technology



# CSMA/CD

- Carrier sense multiple access with collision detection
- Key insight: wired protocol allows us to sense the medium
- Algorithm
  - 1. Sense for carrier
  - 2. If carrier is present, wait for it to end
    - Sending would cause a collision and waste time
  - 3. Send a frame and sense for collision
  - 4. If no collision, then frame has been delivered
  - 5. If collision, abort immediately
    - Why keep sending if the frame is already corrupted?
  - 6. Perform exponential backoff then retransmit

# CSMA/CD Collisions

- Collisions can occur
- Collisions are quickly detected and aborted
- Note the role of distance, propagation delay, and frame length



# **Exponential Backoff**

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- When a sender detects a collision, send "jam signal"
  Make sure all hosts are aware of collision
  Jam signal is 32 bits long (plus header overhead)
- Exponential backoff operates in multiples of 512 bits
  Select k ∈ [0, 2<sup>n</sup> 1], where n = number of collisions
  Wait k \* 51.2µs before retransmission
  n is capped at 10, frame dropped after 16 collisions

**Remember this** 

Backoff time is divided into contention slots

# Minimum Packet Sizes

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- Why is the minimum packet size 64 bytes?
  To give hosts enough time to detect collisions
- What is the relationship between packet size and cable length?
  10 Mbps Ethernet
- 1. Time t: Host A starts Packet and cable lengths change for B transmitting faster Freenet standards Delay (d)
- Time t + d: Host B starts transmitting
- 3. Time t + 2\*d: collision detected

min\_frame\_size\*light\_speed/ $(2*bardwidth) = max_cable_length$  $(64B*8)*(2.5*10^8mps)/(2*10^7bps) = 6400$  meters

# Cable Length Examples

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min\_frame\_size\*light\_speed/(2\*bandwidth) = max\_cable\_length (64B\*8)\*(2.5\*10<sup>8</sup>mps)/(2\*10Mbps) = 6400 meters

- What is the max cable length if min packet size were changed to 1024 bytes?
  102.4 kilometers
- What is max cable length if bandwidth were changed to 1 Gbps ?

64 meters

- What if you changed min packet size to 1024 bytes and bandwidth to 1 Gbps?
  - 1024 meters

# Exponential Backoff, Revisited

- Remember the 512 bit backoff timer?
- Minimum Ethernet packet size is also 512 bits
  - 64 bytes \* 8 = 512 bits
- Coincidence? Of course not.
  - If the backoff time was <512 bits, a sender who waits and another who sends immediately can still collide
## Maximum Packet Size

- Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU): 1500 bytes
- Pros:
  - Bit errors in long packets incur significant recovery penalty
- Cons:
  - More bytes wasted on header information
  - Higher per packet processing overhead
- Datacenters shifting towards Jumbo Frames
  - 9000 bytes per packet

#### Long Live Ethernet

- Today's Ethernet is switched
  More on this later
- IGbit and 10Gbit Ethernet now common
  - 100Gbit on the way
  - Uses same old packet header
  - Full duplex (send and receive at the same time)
  - Auto negotiating (backwards compatibility)
  - Can also carry power

#### <sup>39</sup> Outline

# Framing

- Error Checking and Reliability
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#### 802.3 vs. Wireless

- Ethernet has one shared collision domain
  All hosts on a LAN can observe all transmissions
- Wireless radios have small range compared to overall system
  - Collisions are local
  - Collision are at the receiver, not the sender
  - Carrier sense (CS in CSMA) plays a different role
- 802.11 uses CSMA/CA not CSMA/CD
  - Collision avoidance, rather than collision detection

### Hidden Terminal Problem

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Radios on the same network cannot always hear each other



Hidden terminals mean that sender-side collision detection is useless

#### **Exposed Terminal Problem**



Carrier sense can erroneously reduce utilization

# Reachability in Wireless

- High level problem:
  - Reachability in wireless is not transitive
  - Just because A can reach B, and B can reach C, doesn't mean A can reach C



#### MACA

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#### Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance



### Collisions in MACA

- What if sender does not receive CTS or ACK?
  Assume collision
  - Enter exponential backoff mode

# 802.11b

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- 802.11
  - Uses CSMA/CA, not MACA
- 802.11b
  - Introduced in 1999
  - Uses the unlicensed 2.4 Ghz band

Same band as cordless phones, microwave lovens
 2.412 2.417 2.422 2.427 2.432 2.437 2.442 2.447 2.452 2.457 2.462 2.467 2.472
 Complementary code keying (CCK) modulation scheme<sup>Hz</sup>

- 5.5 and 11 Mbps data rates
  - Practical throughput with TCP is only 5.9 Mbps

I 1 channels (in the<sup>2</sup> US). Only 1, 6, and 11 are orthogonal

# 802.11a/g

- 802.11a
  - Uses the 5 Ghz band
  - 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 48, 54 Mbps
  - Switches from CCK to Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (OFDM)
    - Each frequency is orthogonal
- □ 802.11g
  - Introduced in 2003
  - Uses OFDM to improve performance (54 Mbps)
  - Backwards compatible with 802.11b
    - Warning: b devices cause g networks to fall back to CCK

# 802.11n/ac

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- □ 802.11n
  - Introduced in 2009
  - Multiple Input Multiple Output (MIMO)
    - Multiple send and receive antennas per devices (up to four)
    - Data stream is multiplexed across all antennas
  - Maximum 600 Mbps transfer rate (in a 4x4 configuration)
    300 Mbps is more common (2x2 configuration)

#### 802.11ac

- Final approval slated for next month (Feb 2014)
- 8x8 MIMO in the 5 GHz band, 500 Mbps 1 GBps rates

## 802.11 Media Access

- MACA-style RTS/CTS is optional
- Distributed Coordination Function (DCF) based on...
  - Inter Frame Spacing (IFS)
    - DIFS low priority, normal data packets
    - PIFS medium priority, used with Point Coordination Function (PCF)
    - SIFS high priority, control packets (RTS, CTS, ACK, etc.)
  - Contention interval: random wait time



## 802.11 DCF Example



# 801.11 is Complicated

- We've only scratched the surface of 802.11
  - Association how do clients connect to access points?
    - Scanning
    - What about roaming?
  - Variable sending rates to combat noisy channels
  - Infrastructure vs. ad-hoc vs. point-to-point
    - Mesh networks and mesh routing
  - Power saving optimizations
    - How do you sleep and also guarantee no lost messages?
  - Security and encryption (WEP, WAP, 802.11x)
- This is why there are courses on wireless networking